

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 31, 1877.

The Week.

THE Treasury Commission appointed to make enquiries into the management of the New York Custom-House have made a partial report, which fully confirms various matters of popular belief. Of the 1,038 employees of the Custom-House, excluding the Appraiser's department, twenty per cent. may be at once discharged without injury to the customs service, and a further reduction may be found necessary. Clerks, the Committee further report, are not punctual in attendance or in attention to business; some are deficient in business qualifications and integrity of character; a few are employed in private business, to the detriment of the service; some fraudulently accept money for official services; and all of them are expected to contribute to the support of "the party," the amount of contributions asked "being fixed by a percentage of their respective salaries." Some of the officials repair their diminished salaries "by exacting or accepting from merchants unlawful gratuities." The Committee advise that the service be "freed from the control of party and organized on a strictly business basis, with the same guarantees for efficiency and fidelity in the selection of the chief and subordinate officers that would be required by a prudent merchant"—a recommendation which merits warm approval, and, if strictly carried out, would secure all the reform desired in custom-house management.

Mr. Sherman, to whom the report of the Committee was made, approves the minor recommendations of the Committee—those referring to punctuality of attendance, discharge of useless clerks, etc.—and writes to the President requesting advice with reference "to that part of it relating to appointments upon political influence without due regard to efficiency." The President, in reply, approves all the recommendations of the Committee, and expresses his belief that the party leaders should have no more influence in appointments than other equally respectable citizens; no assessments for political appointments on officers or subordinates should be allowed; no useless officer or employee should be retained; and no officer should be allowed or permitted to take part in the management of political organizations, caucuses, conventions, or election campaigns, though the right to vote and to express views on public questions, either orally or through the press, should not be denied. In his letter of instructions to Collector Arthur with regard to the carrying out of the President's wishes, Mr. Sherman discusses the modes of reduction to be adopted. These may be heartily approved, with two exceptions. He suggests the dismissal or reduction to inferior positions of those longest in the service, when disabled by age or infirmity—a course which may be necessary, without doubt, but which should be most carefully guarded against abuse. He modifies one of the most important of the President's suggestions, also, by saying that "naturally, in a Government like ours, other things being equal, those (officers) will be preferred who sympathize with the party in power; but persons in office ought not to be expected to serve their party to the neglect of official duty . . . or to run caucuses or conventions"—a very lame method of forbidding wire-pulling and pipe-laying on the part of custom-house employees. It is worth notice that Mr. Sherman says nothing about political assessments, nor are they forbidden, as "contributions," by the President. Nor is anything said about the removal of Arthur himself, but, on the contrary, his approval of the Committee's report is referred to as a gratifying fact. On the whole, therefore, while the Committee's report is to be commended as excellent, so

far as it goes, the action taken in consequence of it is not nearly so satisfactory.

The President, too, has not yet rid himself of the delusion that the officers of Government are essentially different from those of a banking-house, factory, or railroad. He is reported to have stated recently, in the course of a conversation, that although he should not consider a tenure of eight years sufficient cause for removal, he would still always take it into careful consideration before making a new appointment. In other words, in the case of a man who has kept his place for eight years, and presumably therefore is thoroughly qualified to fill the place, and has fully learned the duties of his position, good reasons must be given—not for his removal, as would naturally be supposed—but for his retention. The hold which this absurdity has upon the mind of one who has certainly given more consideration to the subject than nine-tenths of the "practical" politicians, shows how deeply-rooted the old spoils system has become. It shows, moreover, the danger of relapse into old ways so long as the old race of politicians continue in power. These men apparently have no understanding of what a civil service should be. They have been educated so long and so thoroughly in the old faith that they cannot comprehend the new. Even when they endeavor to chime in with what they suppose to be correct popular sentiment with regard to it, an unlucky slip, such as would occur in the pious remarks of a prize-fighter turned Christian, betrays what they have been, and the power with which the old associations still rule them. There is a boldness and a completeness about the plan of turning out all the old officeholders once every eight years which may readily cause it to be cherished. It is an easily explained and easily comprehended scheme, and is a very good one, therefore, for the stump-speaker and for "battle shouts." It is likely to turn up often in coming years.

Senator Morton has written a characteristic letter on the political situation, in which he calls attention to the fact that the Republican members of the Committee on Privileges and Elections last spring reported that, "prima facie," Packard was the lawful governor of Louisiana, his Legislature the lawful legislature, and Kellogg the lawful Senator, and declares that this will stand when Congress meets, in spite of what has since happened in New Orleans. He next points out that there was no way of keeping the carpet-bag governments in Louisiana and South Carolina in power except by the use of the army; that they were overthrown by violence, or the fear of violence; that at the next election things were likely to be worse for the Republicans than better; that the Democratic House was likely to deprive the President of the use of the army, and that there was really nothing for it but to let them fall. The recognition of Packard, he says, "would have been futile and the failure disastrous," but the Democratic party is to blame for it all, and the promises of kind treatment of the Southern whites are not to be depended on. He closes this part of the letter with a fulsome eulogy of President Hayes, and goes on to predict the revival and assertion of the "Southern claims," about which Mr. Murat Halstead warned us during the late canvass; maintains that the preservation of the Republican party as the protector of the Southern blacks is more necessary than ever; declares that their condition in all parts of the South is that of pariahs, outcasts, and criminals, and the reported quiet at the South is that of "paralysis and strangulation." The letter is, in all respects, worthy of the sincere and simple-minded author. He supports the President's policy and thus falls in with the prevailing opinion, while at the same time, by hearty abuse of the South and a dismal account of the condition of the blacks, the honest old fellow takes care that he shall not lo-

standing with the Radical wing of the party. When Butler reads the letter he will feel that Morton has got the start of him. In 1867 he, however, got the start of Morton, with the proposal to pay the public debt in greenbacks. There are three things which appear plainly in the letter: (1) that Morton knows that opposition to the Administration would be fatal to him in his own State; (2) that he could write an equally strong argument on the other side, and probably came very near doing it; and (3) that he admits by implication that the party was in a minority when Hayes came in.

Mr. Randall, the ex-Speaker, has written a letter to some leading citizens of Galveston, Texas, in reply to an invitation to visit them, in which he points out that, while the total foreign trade of the countries lying south of the United States on this continent amounts to about \$520,000,000, our share of it is only \$112,000,000, and of this only \$37,000,000 is carried on under the American flag. "Such statements," he very properly remarks, "should at once rouse our people from their lethargy." What we need to mend matters is, he says, "more favorable commercial relations and more comprehensive trade connections with other nations," and he adds "that the policy of the Government should be to enlarge our trade relations with Mexico and with the Central and South American States," and he afterwards speaks of this as "an extended policy." He is, however, very careful not to explain what he means by these vague phrases, and we should not be at all surprised, if he were pushed to the wall, by his revealing that his plan was to take a portion of the taxes to pay people for selling goods to the South Americans and to pay ship-owners for carrying them. Mr. Randall's antecedents all strengthen the supposition that by "extended policy" he means some subsidy scheme or drawback. The difficulty which afflicts the trade of this country with South America is the one which afflicts our trade with all foreign countries. We have so arranged our system of taxation that it costs us more to produce commodities than foreigners are willing to pay for them, and consequently we have to pay for what they sell to us largely in gold, and they cannot afford to take gold. South Americans, like other rational people, go to the market where they exchange their own goods to the best advantage for other people's goods. Left to themselves Americans would soon make such a market here; under the rule of the school of economists to which Mr. Randall belongs, they offer foreigners about the worst markets in the world.

The subject of free-trade in ships has been freely discussed by the press during the past week, and has been debated by boards of trade and similar bodies. The debates and discussions, however, so far as we have observed them, have been confined to the single point of the removal of the existing restrictions upon the purchase of foreign-built vessels. While we believe that this prohibition of purchase is an absurdity in legislation and should be removed at the earliest moment possible, we yet fail to perceive in what way its removal would have so great an effect upon trade as some of its advocates enthusiastically prophesy. England does most of our carrying trade, and probably does it as cheaply as we should if we owned and sailed the vessels. Even if we were allowed, therefore, to purchase her ships, something more than the permission would be requisite before many persons would avail themselves of the privilege. The removal of the restriction, again, would not directly encourage ship-building in this country, any more than putting it on filled our ship-yards with busy mechanics, as its friends hoped would be the case. Whenever we can build ships as good as England builds, and can afford to sell them for the same or a less price, we shall then have our share of the world's trade in ships, and shall not need to purchase them of a foreign country. But, it may be well to remember, ability to build ships does not by any means ensure cargoes to put in them when built, although the contrary of this appears to be assumed by many of those who are now clamoring for free-trade in ships. The agita-

tion is a wholesome one, however, even if it should lead to inquiries which some of its chief advocates might not care to answer. There is, indeed, a glaring absurdity in the fact that the only articles which Americans are prohibited from importing are, as expressed by Mr. Wells, "counterfeit money, obscene books, and ships."

The policy of the Secretary of the Treasury is not yet officially declared. During the week he has advertised the sale of \$1,000,000 gold, presumed to be part of the \$5,000,000 obtained by the sale of 4½ per cent. bonds. The legal-tender notes which this gold brings, it is understood, are to be transferred to the legal-tender note fund held for the redemption of fractional currency. As the fractional notes outstanding are either destroyed or lost, they will never be presented, so that to a small extent, at least, contraction is possible outside the Resumption Act. An effort has been made to induce the banks, or some of them, to apply for new circulation, so that legal-tender notes can be cancelled. The plan is for a bank to forward to the Treasury say \$500,000 bonds, get \$450,000 notes, hold these for a few days, then return them to Washington and get the bonds back. This would compel a cancellation of \$360,000 United States legal-tender notes. The bonds could be used twice this way in one month, and a contraction of \$720,000 legal-tender notes could be effected with no enlargement of the National Bank circulation. The object sought in this way is a good one, but none of the prominent New York banks has yet been found willing to lend itself as the means to secure the object. It is possible, however, that this plan may be acted on to a sufficient extent to reduce materially the volume of legal-tender notes even before the October session of Congress.

An event of the week was the reduction of one-half in the capital stock of the Bank of Commerce—the largest bank in the National system. Its capital was \$10,000,000, and is now \$5,000,000. The reduction was made because with the continued low rates for money it was found impossible to make the capital earn safely as much as it would on simple investment. Bank capital is so heavily taxed in New York that, making moderate allowance for the expenses of a bank, fully seven per cent. has to be earned before a dollar goes to the stockholders. If the Albany Legislature had listened to the appeals of the banks and their customers, the Bank of Commerce capital would to-day have been \$10,000,000. At the auction sale of coal during the week there was a decline in prices ranging from forty to ninety cents per ton. It has been suspected that these low prices were caused by the sales made for the purpose of forcing the Reading to agree to stop production for one month—the consent of that company not having yet been received.

The absence of foreign newspaper correspondents at the scene of operations on either side, and its remoteness from the civilized world, combined with the wonderful activity with which canards are manufactured both in Constantinople and Vienna, have made the war news up to the present time more than usually vague and untrustworthy. The London *Telegraph* has had some sort of correspondent with the Turks at Batum, but he seems to be a good deal of a poet, and very unfamiliar with military operations. He has witnessed several "tremendous battles," and has looked upon many plains "strewn with Russian corpses," but somehow the Russians keep advancing through their defeats, and his trumpet has gradually grown fainter. Two reports that have been started, possibly by him, and eagerly accepted by some of our own Turk papers, of great risings in the Caucasus and among the Crimean Tartars, were absurd on their face to those who know anything of the condition of the Crimea or the Caucasus; but they have had a good ten days' run. The Caucasus is so thoroughly traversed by roads, and dotted by blockhouses and pits, and the tribes so completely disarmed and disorganized, that a serious rising there is out of the question, though small parties might momentarily have interrupted

the traffic between Tiflis and the railroad at Vladikaukas. How little guerillas can accomplish against the communications of well-handled troops was made familiar to everybody in our own war. The small amount of attention paid in 1853 by the Allies to schemes for raising the Caucasians was perfectly justified by the facts. The road between Tiflis and Vladikaukas, which is the terminus of the Russian railroad system, crosses the mountains by the only available pass, known as the Pass of Dariel, and could be easily protected if there were any likelihood of its being seriously assailed, which there is not. In 1864 the Russians completely crushed the insurrection which had lasted so long, and the consequence was that the Circassians proper, the tribe which had done nearly all the fighting, emigrated *en masse*, 400,000 or 500,000 strong, to Turkey, leaving the country which they occupied on the side of the Black Sea almost completely uninhabited. The Abkhassians, who have been also represented as carrying on a formidable "rising," can hardly be said to exist. Most of them have emigrated, and the rest are feeble and peaceable. In short, there is no chance of any help for the Turk from this quarter. All that the Circassians are likely to do for him they did by lending a hand in the Bulgarian massacres last spring.

The report which created a rising among the Crimean Tartars was still more foolish. The Crimean Tartars are but a handful, and one of the most peaceable, unwarlike, least armed, and worst cowed people in Europe. There is absolutely no fight in them. The Turks, who had full access to them in 1854, tried in vain to make soldiers of them; there is still less chance now, twenty-four years later, when they are in the hands of the Russian garrisons. The news from Asia since the taking of Ardahan indicates the purpose of the Russians to mask Kars and follow Mukhtar Pasha up and destroy him, if they can catch him. He seems to have fallen back on Erzerum, not, the American Turks said, by any means by way of retreat, but simply for the purpose of "correcting an error" ("changing his base"), he not having perceived that Erzerum, and not Bairdass, was the place to fight at. He will probably have to fight soon or abandon Erzerum, or go on "correcting his errors" along the coast towards Constantinople. The notion that a determined resistance of any kind is to be expected from him is idle. His incapacity was proved last year in Herzegovina, where his troops were literally butchered by the Montenegrins, and he is now operating in a more difficult country, and against a more formidable enemy, and with an army probably much worse supplied. The distrust of him at Constantinople has already led to his being placed under the orders of Djéni Pasha.

On the Danube the movements of the Russian troops and of their supplies towards the river continues, and there will probably, even if the weather permits, be no crossing until the whole force has come up and is ready to strike quickly. The roads are said to be still so bad as to hinder the transportation of heavy artillery, and the Russian staff is probably not sorry for the delay, as it leaves a chance that a great blow in Asia may spread terror and demoralization at Constantinople before the campaign on the Danube is fairly opened. The preparations of the Turks seem to be confined to the strengthening of the fortresses and the accumulation of bashi-bazuks, of whose military ardor the *Telegraph's* Asiatic correspondent telegraphs glowing accounts. The usual war rumor of the approaching lunacy of the Czar has got afloat, and his physicians are already carrying him from place to place to soothe his irritable brain. At Constantinople the news of the impending catastrophe in Asia is creating great confusion, and the softas have once more risen and demanded a change of ministry. A state of siege is said to have been proclaimed. The Montenegrins are again in the field. It is announced with a certain positiveness that another Servian army is about to appear or has appeared on a war-footing, and there is little doubt that the first

decided Russian success will bring Greece also into the arena, so as to give her a claim to more territory whenever the spoil comes to be divided.

From France there is no fresh news, except that M. Fourton continues to make preparations for the coming elections by shifting or removing prefects, and Marshal MacMahon has been taking great pains to assure Bismarck that the change of ministry does not mean any change in the foreign policy of France, or any adherence to Ultramontane policy. In England everything has been quiet since the close of the debate on the Gladstone resolutions, and there is a steady denial of all stories about warlike preparations on the part of the Government. The incident which, outside of foreign events, has excited most discussion is the action of the Senate of the London University in throwing open the medical degrees to women, for which, however, the University Convocation refused to thank it, and condemned, with strong and stormy support from the medical graduates, its application of special treatment to the Medical Department. They say, in other words, that the women should be admitted to all degrees or none, and they rest their case on the supplemental charter, which makes provision for special and separate examination of women in literature, science, and art. Lord Granville and Mr. Lowe have been the most prominent advocates of the claims of the medical women, and we presume the strongest argument in favor of the action of the Senate is, that women are more desirous of the medical degree than any other, as it is the only one which distinctly helps them to a professional career.

It will probably be found, if the causes of the present crisis in France ever receive thorough examination, that "insults" are at the bottom of it all. Indeed, a large number of all the perturbations of French politics are due to "insults." It now appears that the Ultramontane "recrudescence" against which the majority of the Assembly directed its recent resolution, and which is supposed by the Radicals to have led to Marshal MacMahon's "coup de palais," had its origin in the language of a portion of the Radical press about Catholics and the Catholic religion. Some of this abuse was worse than violent, and it was all sweeping, treating the Catholic faith as a piece of gross imposture, and its professors as a parcel of unpatriotic knaves and dupes. Then there was an "insult" to the Emperor of Russia by an obscure Radical paper at Nancy, which led to a valorous defence of that sovereign by Paul de Cassagnac, and to a call on him in acknowledgment by the Russian minister, and so on. In fact, the disturbance created by "insults" is so great that one is in doubt whether the French Government can be carried on without "muzzling the press," which in its turn raises the question whether a free government is possible for any great length of time with a muzzled press. A certain thickness of skin seems to be absolutely necessary to healthy and orderly political progress. In the French Assembly a hot word which sounds like an "insult" throws the whole body into frantic confusion, and makes the restoration of order impossible until everybody has done enough "hurling back" to satisfy him.

The Mancini Clerical Abuses Bill has been thrown out in the Italian Senate by a majority of seven, to the great disgust of the Ministry and the great delight of the Vatican. The victory is, however, of comparatively small value, as nobody ascribes it to sympathy with the Pope or with clericalism such as might lead to a similar triumph in the French Senate. The fact is that the Italian politicians of all parties, and, of course, especially the Conservatives, are men of moderate temper and have shown it abundantly in their dealings with the Church, and the Ministry has not had hearty support even from its own followers in resorting to what may be called extreme Prussian measures. But the majority in the House on the one side was so large and that on the other side in the Senate so small that it will doubtless cause the clergy to be a little more prudent hereafter.

THE CUSTOM-HOUSE ENQUIRY.

WE have given elsewhere an abstract of the results of the first report of the Custom-House Commission. We regret on many accounts that Messrs. Jay, Turnure, and Robinson seem inclined to take a narrow view of their powers, under the instructions issued by Mr. Sherman. The Commission was directed to enquire and report: 1st, Whether the force employed in the various branches of the Custom-House in New York is in excess of the actual needs of the service; 2d, whether any of the employes are deficient in faithfulness, in qualifications, or in integrity; what number of hours they work, and whether these hours can be increased; whether they are employed in other business; 3d, whether the system of business in vogue in the Appraiser's Department can be improved; and 4th, whether the manner of making appointments can be improved, and whether appointments heretofore have been made through political influence without due regard to efficiency. Mr. Sherman also expressed a wish for a "thorough examination" into the "conduct of business," and desired the Commission to give its "careful attention" to "such complaints as may be presented" as to "the mode of conducting business" and as to "the efficiency of the service," and to take them into consideration in making its report "upon the general subject involved." Under these instructions it is obvious that considerable latitude was given the Commissioners, provided they were willing to take it, and we think it safe to say that, unless they in their final report take the widest view of their powers, and go far beyond a report on the details of the service, they will accomplish but little permanent good.

We say this with the more confidence from the recollection of the meagre results of the last Custom-House enquiry, conducted five years ago by a Congressional Committee. The labors of that Committee and the discoveries it made throw a much greater responsibility upon the shoulders of the present Commission than would rest upon them if custom-house abuses were still virgin soil. Most of the ground they are now going over was thoroughly examined during the incumbency of "Tom" Murphy. That appointments are procured through political influence, and without regard to fitness; that the Collector of this port, for instance, got his appointment through politics, and not because anybody had the faintest idea he was qualified for the place; that salaries are regularly assessed in all important campaigns, and that the customs service generally is bad, are not matters on which anybody in this city needs any light. No sane business man would think of discussing them any more than he would think of discussing the advisability of electing Tweed mayor, or of putting Jay Gould at the head of a railroad commission. It requires now some strange and grotesque revelation—as that made the other day of an appraiser who had entered plants as "printed matter"—to attract even the passing attention of the public. When the existence of facts is as notorious as these are, and has been actually established once already before a competent tribunal, it is not a new proof of them that is needed, but an immediate entry of judgment and execution. This explains the small amount of interest excited by the enquiries of the committee, as well as the great difficulty the Government had in getting good men to serve on it. Indeed, the abuses have not only lasted so long, but have been exposed so long, that many of the best people among those directly concerned, to say nothing of the general public, feel about them as people used to feel about municipal government—that they cannot be reformed, and that there is no use in trying to reform them. No report on the Custom-House is now likely to have much effect that does not take this scepticism into account. Messrs. Jay, Turnure, and Robinson know as well as any three men in the community that it was not much shaken five years ago by the results of the former investigation—the substitution of Mr. Arthur for Murphy and the abolition of the "general-order" abuse; and no mere changes in the details of administration enquired into at Mr. Sherman's suggestion, or increase of

hours of work, abolition of sinecures, or "consolidation" of offices, can accomplish much. A return to fundamental principles, and reform in accordance with these, is the only thing now that will save us, and this, too, no matter what sort of a storm it raises, or whom it may injure. In considering proposals of Custom-house reform there are two or three of these which must be steadily held in view; they furnish tests by which the present and any future reports must be tried.

The first of these is, as the Commission points out, that no reform is possible at all until all connection between the Custom-House and "politics" ceases; and in everything that the Commission and the President say on this subject we heartily concur. But at the same time the report would have been enormously improved if the Commission had, in the consideration of this matter, gone to the root of this connection, which is the character of the tenure by which offices in the civil service are held. A great deal of attention is always directed in every Custom-House investigation to the question of political assessments, the theory being that if these could be stopped there would be no more trouble. This is undoubtedly true, but campaign assessments are not a cause but an effect, and an order forbidding assessments can no more reform the character of the service than an order prohibiting bribes can prevent passengers from getting silk dresses or London clothes through the Custom-House. The assessments are paid simply because the payer knows that his tenure is not secure, and that, as removals can be made without cause, he must pay to make sure of his regular income. They are a tax upon this income, laid by an authority possessed of absolute power over the income. Take away the power and they will no more be paid than would a tax levied by a foreign government. Let the power remain, and the tax will be collected, no matter how often it may be abolished by law. During the Custom-House investigation of 1872 a curious illustration of the confusion in the public mind on this subject was given. Testimony was introduced to show that an assessment was made under an order said to have been posted up in the Custom-House and signed by the Collector. The Custom-House officials immediately offered to prove that the order was a forgery, and that it was not posted up; their theory being that if this could be proved it made no difference whether money was actually paid under it or not, because it must then have been paid "voluntarily." As a matter of fact, it was paid, and went into the regular campaign fund. The payment, thus made under a doubtful order, "voluntarily," was a far better proof of the crushingly demoralizing force of the system than even a forced payment would have been; for it showed that the dread and uncertainty caused by the present tenure is so powerful as to cause money to make its appearance at the bare suggestion of an assessment. On the other side, the certain cessation of the whole system of contributions to campaign expenses as a consequence of a change in the rules with regard to tenure, is distinctly indicated by a fact frequently referred to recently in the newspapers, and never, so far as we know, denied in any quarter, that since Mr. Hayes's inauguration, and the promulgation of the intentions of the Administration on this subject, it has been found impossible to collect the percentages in arrears assessed during the late campaign. The idea that there will be any trouble about "voluntary" payments with a certain tenure is a delusion. No one *volunteers* to pay a tax on his income to carry on the "party" when it is only just large enough to carry on himself and his family. So, too, no clerk would dream, after a hard day's work, of spending his evenings in filthy ward-rooms, nominating members of Congress of whom he has never heard and whom he does not know by sight, did not his position and advancement depend on it. His political work is payment in kind, just as the other is payment in cash, and it all comes back to the central question of the whole—that of tenure. This question the Commission have not discussed.

The other point which we hope the Commission will still feel itself at liberty to consider is the close connection between Custom-House abuses and the system of laws on which they have grown. The laws

we have now on our statute-book are the most stringent in the world, while our complaints of fraud in importations are the loudest. Chief among the causes of fraud undoubtedly is the very stringency in question. For twenty-five years we have been trying to make up for the inefficiency of the service caused by rotation, by the enactment of penal laws and the multiplication of oaths, till the end in view has been defeated by the cumbrous nature of the machinery invented to bring it about. Under a rational system of administration the importer is regarded as a respectable man engaged in a respectable business, to be interfered with as little as possible by the Government in the collection of any tax it imposes upon him. With us the importer is regarded as a suspected person, if not actually an habitual swindler. He cannot engage in the business at all without taking, through the penal laws we have referred to, risks to which no other business is exposed; he is liable at any time during his continuance in business to utter ruin, through a mere mistake in the construction of the law; he is compelled at every step in his dealing with the Government, during every week of his life, to do what no other business man is required to do—make oath to the truth of all his statements; and his oath is taken not as a voucher for the truth of his assertions—the Government having actually enquired beforehand through its own agents into the truth of them—but chiefly as a foundation for criminal proceedings. If the importer were engaged in some obscene calling, it would be difficult to imagine greater pains taken to entrap him or drive him out of the business. But the strangest part of the whole thing is that it is from importations that the Government derives the chief part of its revenue; so that if there is any business that it ought to encourage and protect, it is just this which it persecutes. If any one thinks these statements too strong, we should advise him to read the accurate and circumstantial account of the process of getting goods through the Custom-House contained in the letters recently published in the *Evening Post*, describing the operation, and ask himself whether anywhere else in the civilized world such a system exists.

There is a close connection between this penal and oppressive system and that of protection to native industries. Protection rests on the theory that it is better, economically, for the Government to stimulate native industries by taxation than to leave them to develop themselves; and if this is taken for granted, it is a necessary inference that those who help the Government in its good work—i. e., those engaged in native industries—are an unselfish and noble band of self-sacrificing patriots, who deserve the sympathy and support of their fellow-men. The enemies of these good men are of course all those who are engaged in a conspiracy against the development of the native industries—in other words, all engaged in foreign commerce. Now, it is well known that the legislation of the country has been for years directed by a party devoted to protection, and what we may call the prevailing Custom-House sentiment about this branch of trade (aptly illustrated by the term applied by the notorious Jayne of “the thieves over there in New York”) has been reinforced and developed by the sentiment prevailing in a body like a protective Congress, in which three-quarters of the members felt (or represented a constituency feeling) towards those engaged in foreign trade as the executive committee of a trades-union feels towards employers of labor who hire gangs of “outsiders” at wages below the regular rate. There never was much chance of this being brought to an end until the power of the dominant party began to wane, and, as a matter of fact, the slender progress made by Custom-House reform thus far has been made *pari passu* with the decline in power of the Republican party. The first step was the removal of “Tom” Murphy and the abolition of the general-order abuse, the next, the suppression of the moieties law and the spy system. The present report marks the third stage in what progress has been made. We have now a Democratic House of Representatives and a nearly evenly divided Senate. From such a body we have the right to expect a great simplification of the tariff and a return to rational methods of collecting it.

LEGAL TENDER IN ILLINOIS.

THE recent act of the Illinois Legislature, making all silver coins of the United States legal tender to any amount within that State, raises several questions of both legal and economic interest, but is chiefly instructive as showing how strong a hold the silver infatuation has taken in the West since silver became a “softer” kind of money than greenbacks. The Illinois statute seeks to make the subsidiary coinage legal tender to any amount, both as to past and future contracts, unless the terms of the contract expressly call for some other kind of coin. The value of the subsidiary coinage is 7 per cent. less than the old silver dollar, which latter is, at this time, something less valuable than the greenback dollar—that is to say, the new Illinois legal tender is more than 7 per cent. “softer” than United States legal tender, although, being limited in quantity and having a specific use as small change, its actual softness is not indicated in the market quotations, and cannot be made available at present to the suffering politicians of the West. But if it were otherwise, the phraseology of the statute seems to be poorly calculated to realize the intentions of those who passed it. It says “all silver coins, the standard value of which has been fixed and declared by the Congress of the United States, shall be a legal tender,” etc. There are no silver coins whose standard value has been fixed and declared by Congress beyond five dollars in one payment. There is no such thing as “standard value,” which is neither intrinsic value nor legal-tender value. There is a standard ration, and a standard gallon, and a standard meridian, and a standard of fineness for silver, but a standard *value*, dissociated both from the worth of the thing in the market and from the force of law, is simply non-existent. It is easy to understand what the Illinois legislators intended. They meant to say that in all cases where Congress has declared that \$1.65 worth of silver, divided into convenient tokens and duly stamped under Government authority, shall be legal tender for \$5 in one payment, and no more, any multiple of the same shall be legal tender in Illinois for any amount whatsoever; for instance, \$4.650 shall be legal tender for \$5.000.

Failing to say this, however, it is not likely that any court will enlarge the meaning of their words. We are not likely to have the question brought up under the Illinois statute, interesting as it would be, whether a State can make certain coins legal tender which Congress has not made legal tender, or whether it can make them legal tender for larger amounts than Congress has made them. Congress not having fixed the “standard value” of dimes and quarters, but having merely fixed their standard weight and fineness, and given them a legal-tender value to the amount of five dollars, there are no coins for the Illinois statute to operate upon. Nor are we likely to get any decision from this starting point on the question whether such a law, supposing it to be properly phrased, would be applicable to past contracts, though we venture the opinion that it would not be. As to future ones, it is competent, even without this law, for parties to agree to pay in silver, whether in half-dollars, or trade-dollars, or pounds avoirdupois. The whole affair is a curious piece of legal blacksmithing, intended to be dishonest, and turning out to be only stupid; but the last clause is perhaps the most curious of all. It declares that the silver coins aforesaid shall be legal tender for the payment of all debts “which are not made, by the terms of the contract which created them, expressly in other kinds of coin.” It would appear to be unlawful, therefore, in Illinois to make contracts payable in greenbacks, or, at all events, that such contracts cannot be enforced. Here is a precious coil; and now we hope to hear less animadversion from the loyal organs of opinion in Illinois on the unpatriotic inhabitants of the Pacific States, who adhered to a metallic currency, despite the Legal-Tender Act. The *Chicago Tribune*, by the way, invites the Californians, who are supposed to have an inconvenient surplus of small change, to send it to Illinois, where they can now get a dollar’s worth of property for ninety-three cents! Whether this is fine irony, or incoherence and confusion of ideas, we cannot precisely

make out. *The Tribune* admits that "the effect of the passage of the act remains to be seen."

The first effect will be to impair the credit and standing of the State of Illinois, which have heretofore been high. Flanked by Indiana on the one side and by Missouri on the other, the two most unhappy communities in the Union as regards paper inflation and soft-money swindling, Illinois has withstood the neighborhood craze in times past in a very creditable manner, and has more than once given a sort of casting vote in national conventions against tampering with the public credit by impairing the value of the greenback. But neither of the States named has committed itself to so glaring a fraud as to declare that a person owing \$5,000 shall be discharged upon paying \$4,650. Something may be pardoned to the ignorance which prevails on the silver question—meaning thereby the proposed remonetization of the silver dollar of 412½ grains—but no such ignorance besets the question in hand. This is barefaced cheating, or rather attempting to cheat, frustrated only by the inability of those making the attempt to accomplish what they designed. It is not necessary to suppose that the business community in Illinois have participated in this transaction. There is no evidence that they were consulted about it at all. It is not probable that their influence would have availed anything if they had been. The law bears all the marks of paucity of ideas governed by lurking dishonesty, and might have been passed in any assembly of demagogues who fancied that the majority of their constituents were in debt and unprincipled.

Probably the passage of this law will give some impetus to the Western demand for the remonetization of the silver dollar. This is a matter of such import that it cannot be suitably discussed as a sequel to the Illinois dime law. A few principles may be stated, however, which should govern the action of Congress on this momentous question. It may be desirable that silver should be retained in the world's currency, but the United States alone cannot retain it there. We can have silver exclusively or gold exclusively, after we resume specie payments, but we cannot have both silver and gold unless other commercial countries have both silver and gold also. Therefore, we ought not to take final action without first obtaining the co-operation of Western Europe or some considerable part of it. What is needed to retain silver in the world's currency is fixity of value, and this can be secured only by the existence of some large market where it is exchangeable for gold at an agreed ratio—the larger the market the more complete and assured the fixedness. The ratio of fifteen and one-half to one, if agreed upon internationally, is better than any ratio or any number of ratios not thus agreed upon. This ratio happens to exist by law in a large part of Western Europe among people accustomed to the use of silver, although the operation of the law is for the present suspended by the closing of mints. Therefore, if remonetization is to prevail here, a presumption exists in favor of the ratio of fifteen and one-half to one. Separate action by the United States on this question will yield nothing but disappointment and loss, and the worst form of separate action would be remonetization on a basis which would render international agreement impossible. This is precisely what the Bland bill offers us, to which the existing paper currency is every way preferable.

BANKSIDE.

DEDHAM, MAY 21, 1877.

CHRISTENED you in happier days, before
These gray forebodings on my brow were seen ;
You are still lovely in your new-leaved green ;
The brimming river soothes his grassy shore ;
The bridge is there ; the rock with lichens hoar ;
And the same shadows on the water lean,
Outlasting us. How many graves between
That day and this ! How many shadows more
Darken my heart, their substance from these eyes
Hidden for ever ! So our world is made

Of life and death commingled ; and the sighs
Outweigh the smiles, in equal balance laid ;
What compensation ? None save that the Allwise
So schools us to love things that cannot fade.

Thank God, he saw you last in pomp of May,
Ere any leaf had felt the year's regret ;
Your latest image in his memory set
Was fair as when your landscape's peaceful sway
Charmed dearer eyes with his to make delay
On Hope's long prospect,—as if They forget
The happy, they, the unspeakable ones, whose debt,
Like the hawk's shadow, haunts our brightest day :
Better it is that ye should look so fair,
Slopes that he loved, and ever-murmuring pines
That make a music out of silent air,
And bloom-heaped orchard-trees in prosperous lines ;
In you the heart some sweeter hints divines,
And wiser, than in winter's dull despair.

Old friend, farewell ! Your kindly door again
I enter, but the master's hand in mine
No more clasps welcome, and the temperate wine,
That cheered our long nights, other lips must stain ;
Ail is unchanged, but I expect in vain
The face alert, the manners free and fine,
The seventy years borne lightly as the pine
Wears its first down of snow in green disdain ;
Much did he, and much well ; yet most of all
I prized his skill in leisure and the ease
Of a life flowing full without a plan ;
For most are idly busy ; him I call
Thrice fortunate who knew himself to please,
Learned in those arts that make a gentleman.

Nor deem he lived unto himself alone ;
His was the public spirit of his sire,
And in those eyes, soft with domestic fire,
A quenchless light of fiercer temper shone
What time about the world our shame was blown
On every wind ; his soul would not conspire
With selfish men to soothe the mob's desire,
Veiling with garlands Moloch's bloody stone ;
The high-bred instincts of a better day
Ruled in his blood, when to be citizen
Rang Roman yet, and a Free People's sway
Was not the exchequer of impoverished men,
Nor statesmanship with loaded votes to play,
Nor public office a tramps' boosing-ken.

J. R. L.

A EUROPEAN REMEDY AGAINST BROTHERHOODS.

IN an article on "The Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers" (in Nos. 611 and 612) the *Nation* suggested that railroad companies should form benevolent associations for the benefit of their employes as the best protection against the outrageous practices of "Brotherhoods." The subject is one which in its various aspects has engaged the attention of railroad men in Europe, as well as in this country, and in returning to it we purpose to acquaint our readers with the manner in which one of the foremost of European railroad corporations has solved a problem that has recently assumed such importance here. The company referred to is the Staats-Eisenbahn-Gesellschaft of Austria, whose main track extends from Bázias, on the confines of Hungary and Servia, to Bodenbach, on the frontiers of Bohemia and Saxony, and whose various lines aggregate over 1,100 miles in length. The capital of this company on the 31st of December, 1875, was 253,000,000 florins (about \$100,000,000 in gold), and the number of persons employed in its various departments, including mines, iron and machine works, chemical factories, etc., as well as on its domains in Hungary and Bohemia, exceeded 34,500.

It detracts nothing from the practical value of some of the measures adopted by the company in the interest of its employes that they were primarily dictated by necessity and considerations of self interest. The works of the company being mostly situated in districts where labor is

scarce, it was necessary to attract workmen from other places, and to provide them with homes. Large houses for the accommodation of so-called colonies were erected, as well as small dwellings for single families. In 1875 the company owned 662 such buildings, which could be purchased or rented by the laboring population, their average value being about 1,450 florins. The company advances loans to laborers wishing to build their own houses, the ground being sold to them at a merely nominal figure. The difficulty of obtaining even the necessities of life for the laborers on the works in the remote districts of the former Banat (S. E. Hungary) led to the establishment by the company of large storehouses for the supply of provision and clothing. The benefits of this arrangement—which adds merely a small fraction for freight, etc. (five per cent. on an average) to the actual cost of the articles, while weight and measure are guaranteed—have been extended to the laborers employed in the cities, including Vienna. The goods may be had on a credit limited to one or two-thirds of the monthly earnings. The average saving thus effected to the laborer is estimated at from fifteen to twenty per cent. In Pesth, Prague, and elsewhere eating houses are connected with these establishments. The sales of the storehouses at the various railroad stations amounted in 1875 to about half a million florins, and at the works in the Banat to over one million. While thus assisting the laborer in his material wants, the company endeavors to promote his intellectual improvement. In the Banat it has thirty-three well-appointed schools, in which nearly 4,000 children are gratuitously instructed. The school-houses have been partly erected by the company, one of them at a cost of over 15,000 florins. The expense of these schools amounted in 1875 to over 33,000 florins, and a nearly equal sum (30,500 florins) was expended for religious purposes. The company's patronage extends to thirty-two parishes, with thirty-eight priests of the Roman Catholic and Greek churches. Five places of worship have been wholly erected at the expense of the company.

Pension associations also have been formed under the auspices of the Staats-Eisenbahn-Gesellschaft, and a summary of their leading features may prove suggestive, although modifications would be necessary in order to adapt them to our own needs. It is, moreover, essential, in order properly to estimate their importance, to bear in mind the fact that the prospect of a pension offers a much greater attraction to office-holders in Europe than to the same class in this country. Nor should the fact be overlooked that the rigor apparent in the regulations of the benevolent associations of the Staats-Eisenbahn-Gesellschaft is but in keeping with the admirable discipline of a service which ensures to personal merit the certainty of recognition and reward. The officials of the company, to the number of 2,028, and the subalterns and workmen form two distinct associations, membership being obligatory on all officials less than thirty-five years of age on entering the service. Older persons can only exceptionally be admitted to membership. The fund of the association of officials is sustained in the following manner: I. Members must pay in three per cent. of their monthly earnings, the amount being deducted by the company; II. Members on entering pay i. e., in twenty-four monthly instalments, twenty per cent. of their first year's salary; III. Upon an increase of salary taking place each member contributes, in twelve monthly instalments, fifty per cent. of the amount by which his annual wages were increased; IV. An annual amount is "voluntarily" contributed by the company equal to the aggregate of the regular contributions of three per cent. V. Fines imposed upon delinquent officials go to the funds of the association. Members of ten years' standing who are physically incapacitated from service receive a pension of forty per cent. of the amount of the salary last paid them, each further year of service adding two per cent. to this quota, which is never to exceed one hundred per cent. A pension of at least forty per cent. of the salary is, however, paid to any member incapacitated from service by reason of an accident sustained in the discharge of his duties; while to members dismissed from service before the expiration of ten years, all amounts paid into the treasury, together with four per cent. compound interest, are refunded. Officials voluntarily leaving the service of the company thereby endanger their right of pension, which is absolutely forfeited by the conviction of a member in court of a criminal act. The widow of a member who was either in the enjoyment of a pension or entitled to one receives two-thirds of its amount, her pension ceasing on her remarriage, but being restored to her in case of a second widowhood. A widow not entitled to a pension receives, once for all, a compensation equal to one-fourth of the amount of her husband's yearly salary, to which is added the sum of half a month's wages for each year of his membership. A widow, however, who has been divorced from her husband for "cause," or who leads an immoral life, forfeits her claims on the association. The children of deceased members receive, until the completion of their eighteenth year, an annual

amount which, together with the pension of the mother, cannot exceed seventy-five per cent. of the father's pension. In case of the death of both parents, the rights of the mother descend to her children under the above age. In like manner, the children of a widow deprived of her pension by reason of her personal misconduct are entitled to support as though they were orphans, but assistance may be withheld from orphans guilty of criminal acts. The affairs of the association are administered by a committee composed of five of its members, and of the highest officers and one of the trustees of the railroad company. The management of the funds of the association is entirely independent of that of the finances of the company. An undue accumulation or an insufficiency of funds may be met by a decrease or increase in the rate of contribution, the company in the latter case "voluntarily" bearing a part of the burden. The following figures show the condition of the association in 1875:

Number of paying members,	2,019
Pensioned members,	163
" widows,	192
" orphans,	32
Contributions of members for the year,	106,533 florins.
" of the company for the year,	67,542 "
Amount paid in pensions,	150,876 "
" donations,	1,568 "
Value of the fund at the close of the year,	4,095,949 "

Nearly 3,000,000 florins of the fund were invested in buildings in the city of Vienna.

The association of subalterns and workmen differs in some essential particulars from that of the officials. Its members are divided into two classes, the permanently employed contributing six per cent. of their wages and being entitled to pensions; while those but temporarily employed pay two per cent. and merely secure relief for themselves or their families in case of destitution, illness, or death. The company annually contributes twenty-seven per cent. of the aggregate amount paid by the members of both classes. After ten years of membership the pension is reckoned at thirty per cent. of the average wages received in the last three years, two per cent. being added for every further year of service, the maximum pension never exceeding seventy per cent. Ten years are, however, added in the computation of the pension to the actual duration of service in the case of a member who has been permanently disabled or lost his life in the discharge of his duties. Widows receive two-thirds of the husband's pension, and, in case of the death of both parents, the same amount is paid to their children under fifteen years of age. At the close of 1875 the financial status of the association was as follows:

RELIEF FUND.—Members, 32,567; annual contributions, 158,143 florins; value of the fund, 611,388 florins.

PENSION FUND.—Members, 9,639; annual contributions, 166,335 florins; value of the fund, 1,746,701 florins.

The expenditures from the date of the establishment of the association, in 1860, to the close of 1875 were:

RELIEF FUND.	FLORINS.	PENSION FUND.	FLORINS.
Physicians' fees,	661,199	Pensions paid to members,	476,108
Cost of medicines, etc.,	144,978	" " widows,	375,967
Hospital expenses,	108,353	" " orphans,	20,606
Assistance to members during illness,	1,005,271	Donations,	56,254
Funeral expenses,	140,643	Current expenses,	100,519
Assistance at births,	81,497		
Donations to widows, etc.,	122,220		
Current expenses,	143,378		
Total,	2,407,539	Total,	1,029,254

This fund is invested, in part, in buildings in the city of Vienna, which serve as cheap dwellings to such members as are employed there. The association employs 87 physicians, and has contracted with 31 hospitals for the accommodation of its members. In Reschitza, in the Banat, where the largest iron and machine works of the company are situated, and in two mining districts, the association has built its own hospitals. It should be added that the company pays full wages to its officials in permanent employ in case of an illness not exceeding 3 months, and, in case of continued illness, one-half of their wages for 9 months longer. In all the contributions of the company to the two associations described had reached the sum of 1,705,300 florins at the close of 1875.

Independently of these institutions, as well as of the charities of the company, a life-assurance association has been formed by the officials and subalterns. This association numbered, in 1875, 4,153 members, and the amount assured (the policies not exceeding 1,000 florins) was 3,052,250

florins. From the time of its establishment, in 1864, to the close of 1875 the association had paid 318,386 florins to the survivors of 521 members. The total income during this period was 891,268 florins, and the expenses were 413,293 florins, the fund of 390,975 florins thus remaining being 22,221 florins in excess of the liabilities as computed on the 31st of December, 1875. A part of this fund is profitably employed in loans advanced to members, 11,914 such loans, to the amount of 895,242 florins, having been granted since the establishment of the associations.

In addition to the advantages of the institutions mentioned, the employes of the Staats-Eisenbahn-Gesellschaft enjoy various minor privileges, such as the purchase of fuel of the company at the cost price. Two scholarships, moreover, endowed at the commercial high school of Vienna, are open to sons of meritorious officials, and an annual grant of 500 florins each is at present made to five sons of employes in the Banat, for the pursuit of higher studies. All in all, these measures testify to a better appreciation, on the part of the Staats-Eisenbahn-Gesellschaft, of the true relations between labor and capital than is to be found, to the best of our knowledge, among railroad men in America.

THE GROSVENOR GALLERY AND THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May 9, 1877.

THE season of picture-shows in London has this year been marked by an important event—the opening of the much-talked-of Grosvenor Gallery. Besides having been talked of in advance, all winter, the Grosvenor Gallery has been kept well before the eyes of the public by a great display of bricks and mortar and boarding in the middle of Bond Street, and by large placards on blank walls and the tops of omnibuses. It was to have been opened on the 1st of April, but at that moment the bricks and mortar in Bond Street were still in a fatally chaotic condition; so the date on the placards was altered, and on the first of the present month the new exhibition made its first appearance in public. This may perhaps seem an awkward way of saying that the private view took place on that day; but a private view in London is, after all, a denser concourse of people than a public one. The Grosvenor Gallery is the creation of Sir Coutts Lindsay, a Scotch gentleman of fortune with a taste for painting, who has conceived that there will be a “chance” in London for a place of exhibition independent of the Academy and its diplomatic mysteries, in which a moderate number of the very best pictures may be commodiously hung. He has executed his plan in a very sumptuous manner, and the artists who exhibit have done so by “invitation.” Everything in this world falls short of its ideal, and I believe that as regards two or three points of detail the Grosvenor Gallery has had to sacrifice to awkward necessity; but whether or no it is to be one of the institutions of the future, it is at least one of the topics of the present, and is certainly the most interesting thing that the season of 1877 has brought forward. In three or four very elegant and agreeable rooms (one of which, however, is draped with a crimson of altogether too vivid a hue) are disposed some two hundred works of varying interest, but the general effect of which is to suggest a higher level of ability than the very much larger show at the Royal Academy, which opened a week later. The works of each painter are all hung together; an experiment worth trying, but not, I think, altogether successful. Two or three painters who rarely exhibit are present in force—notably Mr. Burne Jones and Mr. Whistler. Mr. Rossetti, according to report, was to have been represented; but he has been deterred by considerations with which I am unacquainted. The two painters who have most things are foreigners—Heilbuth and Tissot—one of them with ten, another with eleven pictures; and the consummate cleverness of the work which each of them contributes acquires the utmost relief from its juxtaposition with the comparative helplessness of hand and brush observable in the English painters. Alma Tadema, with his masterly skill in painting (he contributes half a dozen things), profits also by contrast with his more primitive neighbors.

I am far, however, from saying that any one of these artists is the most interesting figure in the Grosvenor Gallery. Heilbuth puts forward his specialty—cardinals and *monsignori* on the terraces of Roman gardens, getting into their coaches with the help of old snuff-taking lackeys in ill-made liveries stiff with embroidery, or putting out their hands to be kissed by little crop-headed, full-skirted seminarists in high places, from which you see the dome of St. Peter's through a balustrade of porous travertine. The painter's observation and his sentiment of certain Roman things are almost exquisite; but why should he ignore so completely the yellow Roman light, and represent everything as happening beneath the cold, steel-grey clouds of a Parisian December? M. Tissot deals in *toiles d'ence*; most of them are highly successful, but the success is, to my

mind, not agreeable. Among the most interesting things are three or four portraits by Mr. Watts, which amply justify the claims of his admirers that he is the first English painter in his line. One of these, a large portrait of Lady Lindsay playing a violin, and another, a still larger likeness of Mrs. Percy Wyndham, have an admirable breadth and harmony; the great success, however, is a masterly full-face of Mr. Burne Jones, which has in an extraordinary degree that quality of transmuted reality distinctive of the highest portraiture. These things are serious painting. They lose nothing by comparison with Mr. Millais's three heads of daughters of the Duke of Westminster. We doubt whether more inexpensive work than this ever proceeded from the hand of a painter of equal talent. Mr. Holman Hunt contributes a picture no longer new, which was much talked of in its day—the “Afterglow in Egypt”—a young girl with a panier on her head, surrounded by fluttering and alighting doves, and illumined by the clear, rosy twilight. The picture is a puzzle, so much of beautiful work does it contain, and yet so little of easy and natural charm. Mr. Whistler presents half a dozen canvases which I must take care not to mention as pictures; they are, according to the catalogue, “nocturnes,” “arrangements,” and “harmonies.” Since our business is with pictures, it were better, I suppose, not to speak of these things; but, after all, their material is paint and canvas, and they are framed and hang upon a wall. I have never seen any combination of these ingredients which has struck me as less profitable. Mr. Whistler, it is known, is an “impressionist”; one of his nocturnes is his impression of Mr. Henry Irving, and another his impression of Miss Ellen Terry. It may be good to be an impressionist; but I should say on this evidence that it were vastly better to be an expressionist. Mr. Whistler's productions are, in the very nature of the case, uninteresting; they belong to the closet, not to the world. They may be good studio-jokes, or even useful studio-experiments, but they illustrate only what one may call the self-complacency of technicality. To people who stand on their two feet and look at a reproduction of life with their two eyes, they appeal with no persuasive force whatever.

There are several other things in the Grosvenor Gallery which would be worth speaking of, but I must pass them over for the purpose of saying three words about the great contribution of Mr. Burne Jones, which I have intentionally left to the last. This extremely interesting painter offers eight large pictures which more than cover one wall of the room. There are a great many things to be said about them, but I can only offer my tribute, in passing, to their altogether extraordinary beauty. They are not only, beyond all comparison, the most brilliant work offered at present by any painter to the London public, but they rank among the most eminent artistic productions of our day. It is possible to urge a hundred objections to them—to declare that they lack freshness and manliness, that they are affected, dilettantish, monotonous, unreal. They have an amount of imaginative force the mere overflow of which would set up in trade a thousand of the painters who are more generally accepted by the public; and it is very certain, at any rate, that at the Grosvenor Gallery they completely dominate, as the French say, the exhibition. The place of honor among them is occupied by the painter's most perfect and elaborate work—the “Days of Creation.”

I have left myself but little space to speak of the Royal Academy, though doubtless it ought to be sufficient for an account of impressions gathered in the crush, the bewilderment, and the conversational interruptions of a private view. The exhibition of 1877 is a tolerably full one, and the Academy apparently has not suffered by the rival claims of the Grosvenor. It is to be said, however, that though the catalogue offers a complete list of distinguished names, some of them are represented by works of slight importance. There are no “pictures of the year” to rival Mr. Poynter's “Atalanta's Race” or Mr. Leighton's “Daphnephoria” of last season. The latter of these artists, however, is by no means absent; he is present in a manner which testifies afresh to his brilliant and various ability. He figures this year as a sculptor, and the first thing, probably, that the knowing people will look for at the Academy is his bronze statue of a “Young man struggling with a python.” The presumption is certainly against the success of a man of middle age, who has dealt exclusively with another branch of art, “going in,” from one day to another, for the laurels of Phidias; but it must be said that Mr. Leighton's young man and his python have both a surprising amount of beauty and truth. It is brilliantly clever work, full of an almost French *finesse* and audacity—a contribution to British sculpture which, in the present state of her resources, she certainly cannot afford to make light of. I prefer it, I confess, to the two very elegant pictures which Mr. Leighton exhibits this year. The general impression made by a stroll through the various rooms of the Academy is

not, it must be admitted, in a high degree flattering to British art. The savor of æsthetic Philistinism is of the strongest; the pictures all seem painted down to the level of the most vulgar *bourgeois* taste. Everything is anecdotal; the sense of beauty, of form, of imaginative suggestiveness, is strikingly absent. It would, indeed, on the evidence of the present exhibition, not be difficult to represent the Academy as a society for the promotion of front-parlor æsthetics. Especially noticeable is the absence of any rendering of the nude human being, any frank reproduction of the great type of formal beauty. Here, as throughout the field of English art and letters, the influence of the "young person" and her sensitive cheek is perceived to prevail. The picture of the year is unquestionably Mr. Long's "Egyptian Feast," an elaborate and charming work, in which indeed there is a considerable presentation, on a small scale, of the undraped limb. The picture is based upon a text in Herodotus, who relates that, in the course of their banquets, the Egyptians were wont to have a mummy brought in and dragged solemnly about under their eyes, to remind them of their mortality in the midst of their revelry. Mr. Long's perturbed revellers are very prettily rendered, with a great variety of attitude and expression, and the picture is a very graceful and tasteful performance. The clear, diffused, yet not violent light is especially good. I should call it superficial painting, however, and risk the observation that its brilliancy is decidedly comparative. The great name in the English art of our day—that of Mr. Millais—is represented by three large works, one of which is a remarkable landscape. Mr. Millais at his worst has the *allures* of a real painter, and in two of these pictures he is not at his worst. One is an old Beef-Eater, in his red embroidered doublet and hose and heriboned black velvet hat. The old man's gentle, crumpled face is, I suppose, more or less painted; but it is killed by the wholesale crimson of his costume. The whole thing, however, is brushed in in a very painter-like fashion, and suggests various reflections as to what we might have if such a vigorous, manly hand were guided by a spirit a little more worthy of it. These reflections present themselves with even greater force in regard to the canvas labelled "Yes," which is simply an enlarged specimen of the illustrations which Mr. Millais used to contribute to Mr. Trollope's novels. The landscape, however, which represents a large, brawling stream in an autumnal Scotch forest, is strong, rich, and interesting. I must add that there are two very charming things by the American painter, Mr. George Boughton, touched with ingenious fancy, interesting in sentiment, and peculiarly refined in color.

Correspondence.

THE BOSTON COLLECTORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A dispute with an editor in his own column; it is often said, and for obvious reasons, never pays. But as you make my letter, which doubted the justice or public policy of dismissing Collector Simmons because many believed, at the time he was appointed, that he could not, and some thought that he had no right to succeed, the cause of a more severe attack upon him, you will allow a word further, I hope.

His endorsement by the merchants of Boston has been general. Of this there can be no doubt. But in your editorial comments you say that they did this because they felt compelled to by the power over them which a collector has; that what they said they did not mean; that, in short, the signers are guilty, one and all, of moral prostitution. This is the charge, is it not?—a grave one, and against men the most honorable. But are you not mistaken? Can this opinion be accepted? Is it not more reasonable, and more just too, to believe that they mean what they say: that they believe he has made a good officer, and want him retained; and have no favor for any system of civil service that seeks to reform out an officer who has done his duty well and faithfully? And must we not the more readily accept this opinion when we hear many of them supporting their public words by their private conversation?

But you say, further, he should be removed because he never should have been appointed. Admitting, for the moment, that his appointment could not then be justified, so that we may discuss only your principle, let me ask if you would for the same reason remove every public officer? If yes, the President would have little time for Southern matters. He would be chiefly occupied, for the present at least, in reviewing the appointments of his predecessor; and this would compel every man to produce before him the certificates upon which he was appointed—which would be, of course, absurd. Besides, it would recall too much the degenerate days of General Grant, of which some have complained so much.

But you would, perhaps, compel a few only—the collectors of large ports, for instance—to try their titles by your rule. In such a reform, however, there would be no principle; it would not be thorough, but the creature of caprice, and no more like true reform than a sentry-box is like Windsor Castle. More than that, would it not be as ungraceful as unjust and impolitic for our President, so soon after the trouble preceding his inauguration, to dispute the title of any of his officers because they were not rightfully appointed? Would this not be a more practicable rule—to let those remain in office who have proved themselves both capable and honest? No one, then, either Democrat, cynic, or Republican, can suggest the old reasons for removals—that some one else wanted the office. And under this rule should you not give great weight to the public and private endorsements of merchants who have daily business with the collector?—Respectfully,

C. G. F.

Boston, May 26, 1877.

["Moral prostitution" of the kind our correspondent describes is one of the commonest and most notorious facts of the day and one of the scandals of our politics. Not Collector Simmons only but almost any poor rascal who has a favor to ask of the Government can get a warm recommendation signed by almost anybody he chooses to ask. The experience of the President and of all heads of departments on this point is well known to be deplorable. If we said that the American conscience was dead in the matter of giving testimonials and certificates of character, we should hardly be guilty of exaggeration. We do not affirm that the merchants who "endorsed" Mr. Simmons were guilty of this "moral prostitution," but we do affirm that this "moral prostitution" is so common, and in a case of this kind so probable, that the President would be perfectly justified in disregarding any such testimonial, and acting as if it did not exist. An enormous proportion of the revenues of the Government is raised through the custom-houses of New York and Boston; in other words, there is more civil service to reform in them than in any other department of the Government. Now, reform means a change not only in the mode of appointment but in the aims and interests of all the officers, in their hopes, fears, and ambitions—in short, in the whole spirit and atmosphere of the place; and we have no hesitation in saying that such a change would be very difficult, if not impossible, under chiefs who had administered the old system and believed in it, and who most unquestionably, no matter what President Hayes may do now, will always secretly cherish the expectation that there will be a relapse under his successor, and try to keep themselves in a state of preparation for it. No private firm would think for a moment, if contemplating a reorganization of their business, of having the work carried out by men identified with the old abuses and sure to be secretly hostile to the proposed changes. No sincere reformer could have become or remained Collector of the New York or Boston Custom-House as managed by Mr. Arthur or Mr. Simmons.—ED. NATION.]

WHAT IS PATRIOTISM?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent in one of the evening journals has recently been complaining that while a duty of twenty to twenty-five per cent. is charged on his raw material—copper and spelter—the manufactured article, yellow-metal sheathing, is admitted free for use upon American-built vessels engaged in foreign trade. The foreign metal is consequently supplied in such cases at a considerably less price than it can be made for here.

The question at the head of this letter has often occurred to me. You will readily see why. My father came to this country in the year 1847, bringing a family consisting of my mother, an only son, then eleven years old, and five daughters, all younger than that. He died in the year 1862. His moderate property had been seriously impaired by some of the earliest depredations of the *Alabama*. As advised by those older than myself, I invested the entire proceeds of his estate—\$14,700—in a vessel under a foreign flag. Some of my neighbors, who had lessened their interests in shipping by large and very advantageous sales to the Government, and were employing the proceeds of those transactions in filling army contracts, charged me with a want of patriotism. They took the ground that the use of any but our own flag was a distrust of the Government. They were

patriotic, and I was not. In the end, they made money, and so did I; the just and the unjust prospered alike. I have now six vessels, all under a foreign flag. When one of them requires a suit of yellow-metal sheathing, I am informed that, not being American-built, I cannot avail myself of the special provision permitting its use free of duty. I must take that manufactured here, paying from two to three cents per pound more for it than the foreign would cost, and am assured that it cannot be made for less under the existing tariff. My neighbors still charge me with a want of patriotism, a desertion of the dear old flag, because I buy my vessels where I can get them cheaper. They take an American-built vessel, and cover her all over, top and bottom, with foreign material, because it is cheaper. The question puzzles me, Are they more patriotic than I?

NAVIGATION.

ANDERSONVILLE ONCE MORE.

[A subscriber in New Orleans sends us the following, touching the late discussion in our columns of the treatment of the Andersonville prisoners. We publish it in deference to Judge Campbell's position, but must decline to give any more space to the subject:]

I have read an article published in the *Nation* of the 5th inst. entitled "Treatment of Prisoners in the Civil War," at your request, and proceed to examine that portion to which you refer me which speaks of Col. Chandler's reports on the condition of the Andersonville Prison and an endorsement made by me on those reports in 1864. These reports of Col. Chandler, and his testimony upon the trial of Wirz, the custodian of the prisoners, in 1865, have formed the staple of campaign speeches by malignants since that date, and enjoy a credit they do not deserve, even from them. He was attached to the Adjutant and Inspector-General's Office at Richmond, and most probably was detailed for a tour of inspection service, under orders from the War Department, comprehending a visit to Andersonville. He performed this duty, made his report to his superior officer, and there his functions and action ended. His report came to the officer to which he was attached, and was read and considered. The Assistant-Adjutant and Inspector-General (Chilton) deemed it of sufficient importance to be submitted to the Secretary of War. He endorsed on a blank leaf "that the condition of Andersonville Prison was a cause for reproach of the Confederacy"—thus the report came to the War Office. As Assistant-Secretary, I examined the report; I directed that Gen. Winder, who had charge of the prisoners, and whose conduct was impugned, should have a copy and should furnish explanations of his conduct, and a similar course was taken in respect to other officers and other subjects, as deemed suitable. The reports were carried by myself to the Secretary of War, and contain an endorsement signed by me that the statements in the reports disclosed a state of things which made the interposition of the War Department proper. You will observe that the War Department sought the information, and that whatever was done by each of these officers was done in the orderly and regular course of army organization and correspondence. Chandler, in his testimony at Washington after the war, represented the War Department as listless, careless, negligent—that he was alone. The endorsements on the reports themselves, when they were afterwards produced, discredited the statement he had made. I have seen a speech which represented him as procuring the endorsements and importuning something to be done. Of course this was absurdly false. His rank, his standing in the army, as well as the system of army administration, would have hindered any such lobbying. The fact is, there was no inattention or indifference on the subject. Each officer of the department understood his duty and all that the subject demanded, and did not need anything from Col. Chandler except what he was required to do. In due course Gen. Winder answered the charges contained in Chandler's report. I remember that it contained an indignant and scornful denial of the truth of the statements in Chandler's reports. Gen. Winder's letter, with other documents relative to this subject, may possibly exist among the Confederate papers in Washington City. Some time after the death of Gen. Winder, in 1865, Chandler consulted me at the War Office whether a court of enquiry could not be convened so as to vindicate him from the strictures made by Winder upon his character and reports. The death of Winder and the impending crisis in the affairs of the Confederacy rendered such a measure impracticable.

I had no share in the consultations relative to the change of the conditions, custody, or care of the prisoners, and no connection with their management. My connection with the officers of the Confederate Government enables me to say with emphasis that there was no inhumanity, cruelty, or wanton maltreatment or neglect on their part.

The condition of the prisoners must have been deplorable. This was the condition of Confederates in the camp and in the hospital. There was scarcely a family in the Confederate States which was not abridged in its comforts and a very large proportion in the necessities of life. It was the condition of yours and of mine. The inexorable and iron policy of the United States precluded relief to those prisoners by a resort to the usual course of making an exchange of prisoners. The blockade prevented the introduction of medicines, stores, supplies. Armies of invasion made a desolation and a waste in the land. The destruction of railroads, mills, and magazines prevented the accumulation and distribution of provisions. The posts at which the prisoners were placed were thus separated from intercourse and supplies. Their conveniences, comforts, and even necessities must have been curtailed.

Nevertheless, it fully appears that the number of deaths among the prisoners captured by the Northern armies was proportionately greater than the deaths of Northern prisoners in Southern prisons.

I am not prepared to conclude that inhumanity, cruelty, want of care to the suffering and the impotent belong exclusively to the States south of Mason and Dixon's line.—Very respectfully and truly yours,

JOHN A. CAMPBELL.

NEW ORLEANS, April 16, 1877.

Notes.

LIPPINCOTT & CO. are the American publishers of 'The Science of Language,' a translation of M. Hovelacque's 'La Linguistique,' noticed in No. 554 of the *Nation*.—Noyes, Snow & Co. have in press 'Coronation,' a novel, by E. P. Tenney, President of Colorado College.—G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready 'Lectures on the History of Protection in the United States,' by Prof. W. G. Sumner.—Hurd & Houghton announce 'The American Antelope and Deer, and their Domestication,' by Judge Caton, of Illinois.—The more important papers in the seventh volume of the 'Collections' of the Wisconsin Historical Society, just published, have been separately noticed by us. The personal recollections of several pioneers are of unusual interest.—The Boston Public Library's Check-list for American Local History is carried in *Bulletin* No. 41 as far as *Fitchburg*. Part III. of bibliographical notes on the history of Mental Philosophy, and notes of Americana—maps and early discoveries—still further enhance the value of the number.—The first *Bulletin* of the U. S. Entomological Commission gives practical directions for destroying the young or unfledged locusts, and appends the full text of laws granting bounties for their destruction in Missouri, Kansas, and Minnesota.—The third volume of Professor Stubbs's 'Constitutional History of England' is expected to appear before the end of the year.—Mr. Leighton's essay at sculpture in the Royal Academy is not the only instance nowadays of a painter seeking renown in a sister art. M. Gérôme, as we learn from the *Athenæum*, is engaged upon a colossal group representing a gladiator giving the finishing stroke to a retiarius. It is to be cast in bronze in one piece, without retouching, and will be ready in September. Remembering how often, in past centuries, sculpture and painting were united in the same artist, it is surprising that they should have become so divorced, by custom and professional jealousy. The study of form would seem to be invaluable to a painter, even if he did not achieve distinction in modelling; but as a rule doubtless more painters would succeed as modellers than sculptors as colorists.—A fine old English mansion, Bramhall Hall, in Cheshire, which Nash has made famous, has just been stripped of all its contents—family pictures, armor, oak carvings and furniture, plate, etc.—which have been sold at auction. The fate of the Hall itself is undetermined. Several drawings of it have been lately given in the *British Architect*; the fourth in the issue for May 4.—The latest African exploration is mapped in the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal*, No. 67 (the Tchad basin and its inhabitants, by Dr. Nachtigal), and in the *Geographical Magazine* for May (the Alexandra Nile and the Lukuga, by Mr. Stanley). The latter periodical also has a striking map of the famine districts of Bombay and Madras, and an article, even more impressive, on the systematic efforts for anticipating and repressing famines in India. The "practical man" will be surprised to find the idle observer of sun-spots looming up as a public benefactor and the minister of Plenty.

—A correspondent writes us from Ripon, Wisconsin:

"In reading Prof. Whitney's admirable English Grammar, which the *Nation* reviewed last week, the thought has occurred to me, as it probably has to others, that there is real need of a larger work upon the same subject, and that Prof. Whitney has proved his eminent qualification to supply that need. We have, to be sure, the English translation of Maetzner; but the

translation is poorly done, the book is without index, and altogether it is of little service except to scholars. It is more than doubtful whether Maetznor could be made to supply the need which the writer has in mind. Recent scholarship has made large additions to our knowledge of the history and laws of the English language, but the larger portion of these results are accessible to scholars only. Now, a treatise upon English grammar of a third or a half the size of Maetznor, which would bring these results within reach of all educated men, would be a most serviceable book; it would be of especial value to advanced students in our colleges and seminaries. I cannot but regret that the *Nation*, in its review, did not add its authority to this suggestion."

—Those who wish success to the *Magazine of American History*, which now makes punctually its monthly appearance, will view with mixed feelings the establishment of a rival, albeit a quarterly. The Trustees of the Publication Fund of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania have issued the first number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, gratis to the subscribers to the Fund, and at three dollars per annum to other persons. In form, paper, and typography it is superior to its New York contemporary, and it is at least not inferior in its contents. These consist of a variety of hitherto unpublished documents, and of seven of the memoirs prepared for the Centennial celebration of the adoption of the "Resolutions respecting Independency," by descendants and others. The paper on Edward Whalley, the regicide, will attract attention, but we are not so sure that it will make converts. After pointing out our ignorance of the date and circumstances attending the death of Whalley, and the weakness of the arguments on which rests the common belief that he died between 1674 and 1676 and lies buried in New Haven, Mr. Robins advances the opinion that it was Whalley who left Hadley in 1680 and journeyed West and South as far as Virginia—tradition saying merely on this point that one of the judges did so, and never returned. He then introduces a document written by one of his ancestors on the Eastern Shore of Maryland in 1769, who claims Edward Whalley, "otherwise Edward Middleton," as his ancestor, states that the regicide came to Virginia in 1681, and thence "travelled up to ye province of Maryland," and settled on the Atlantic side of the Eastern Shore, bringing his family thither about 1687, "in ye name of Edward Middleton," the last being his wife's maiden name. After the Revolution of 1688 he threw off his disguise, and had his lands patented in his own name. He became blind many years before his death, which occurred in 1718, when he was one hundred and three years old. Thomas Robins, "3rd of ye name," and the authority for these statements, adds a pious regret that his ancestor had not "received yt due to him," viz., the scaffold, and ends with a "vivat rex," July 8, 1769. We are next shown, from the will-records of Worcester Co., Maryland, the will of Edward Wale, dated April 21, 1718, and agreeing as to the names of his children with Thomas Robins's account of them. That Edward Wale signed his last testament with his mark would be explained, we suppose, by his blindness.

—The literature of the Eastern Question multiplies daily. Leaving the larger works for formal review, we note here some recent pamphlets that have come to hand. Appleton & Co. publish 'The Northern and Asiatic Defences of Turkey,' chiefly the work of Mr. Charles H. Woodman, who has freely made use of Moltke, Chesney, and other authorities. One chapter, florid and nowise weighty, by Mr. Geo. M. Towle, treats of the defences of Constantinople, and sees trouble ahead for the "assailant Cossack or Muscovite" from the "fierce and swarthy legions of Asiatic Turkey." For its topographical and statistical details this compilation will be found worth its price; two small maps elucidate the text, and will answer all ordinary purposes for the campaign. Mr. Edward A. Freeman's trenchant essay on 'The Turks in Europe' (Lovell, Adam, Wesson & Co.) is characteristically lucid and direct, and answers without illusions the questions: Who and what are the Turks? What has the Turk done in Europe? What is to be done with the Turk? We need quote but a single sample of the author's style and opinion:

"Experience shows that to preach to the Turk, to argue with the Turk, is simply to waste words. The notes and memoranda and despatches which were sent to the Turk during the last year, the proposals and counter-proposals which were made to him during the late Conference, had the simple fault of coming five hundred years too late. Five hundred years ago, when the Turk was a new-comer, and men did not know him so well as they do now, those notes, memoranda, despatches, and proposals would have been reasonable and creditable. After five hundred years' experience of Turkish doings, they are simply foolish."

This might have been put more tersely, but not more justly. Mr. Freeman rightly insists upon the fact that the inferiority in which his religion requires the Mussulman to hold the infidel, is fatal to the hope of any such reform in Turkey as will give all her subjects the equal protection of the laws. His historic summary of the origin of the Ottoman Empire may now be supplemented by a fuller summary—Dr. Johannes Blochwitz's 'Brief His-

tory of Turkey.' We noticed this work in the German in No. 617, on its first arrival in this country, and it has since been translated by Mrs. M. Wesselhoeft, and rushed through the press of J. R. Osgood & Co. The original was too hastily printed, and the translation suffers from its defects as well as from some of its own. There is an omission of dates and even sentences which seems somewhat arbitrary as abridgment, but may have been unintentional; as, for instance, on pp. 31 and 35. What is truly regrettable, however, is that errors which ought not to have escaped Bernstein's proof-reader in Berlin have been copied from Blochwitz by Mrs. Wesselhoeft and again overlooked by the proof-reader of the Franklin Press. Thus Blochwitz twice (pp. 25, 26) gives 1553 as the date of the capture of Constantinople, instead of 1453; and likewise 1552 for 1452. The same errors (gross ones, because the chapter-headings determine the period exactly) reappear on pp. 34, 35 of the American edition. Again, on p. 35 of the latter, the translator, preferring another reckoning, has changed Blochwitz's Constantine XI. to Constantine XIII., but failed to correct his estimate of an interval of 1520 years between Constantine the Great's making Byzantium his capital and its downfall (in reality 1123 or 1125 years at the outside). Otherwise, the translation is praiseworthy, and two maps, which are wanting in Blochwitz, are inserted in this handy volume. Osgood & Co. publish also 'Russia and Turkey, with Maps,' by Mr. James M. Bugbee, a writer not so well known as his painstaking accuracy and sound sense deserve to make him. The little handbook does not attempt to do any more than furnish necessary information about the Eastern Question, and this Mr. Bugbee gives in a straightforward, unpretentious way. The maps are very good. There has been no more convenient manual on the subject published in this country. It remains to speak of two capital maps, Handtke's "Turkey in Europe" and "Black Sea" (Westermann). The first is on a somewhat smaller scale than Liebenow's, from which it differs also in having the orography delineated, and in covering more ground. Liebenow stops with the parallel of Galatz, but Handtke gives S. E. Hungary, all of Moldavia, and part of Bessarabia—in a word, the country from Kisheneff to Spalatro. Its side-maps represent, enlarged, the Bosphorus, Crete, and Montenegro. The Black Sea map, though smaller still in scale, is comprehensive enough to embrace the entire probable seat of war. Its scope is from Belgrade to Tiflis, and northward as far as Jassy. The whole of the Egean is shown, and in side-maps the harbor of Sebastopol, the Dardanelles and Bosphorus, on a most liberal scale. In short, if but one map were wanted, it would be this; and the dual operations on the Danube and in Armenia make a single map exceedingly convenient, if not indispensable.

—The erection of a statue to Halleck, in Central Park, has produced a good deal of critical writing about his standing as a poet; the best of which that we have seen is Mr. Lathrop's article in the June number of the *Atlantic*. Fame, as it has often been said, is an uncertain thing, but it has been left to the nineteenth century, with its newspapers, magazines, and other machinery for organizing "agitations" of all kinds, to give posthumous reputation a curiously spasmodic and intermittent character. Halleck had a most modest estimate of his own abilities; as Mr. Lathrop observes, he said of himself near the close of his life: "I have published very little and that little almost always anonymously, and have ever been but an amateur in the literary orchestra, playing only upon a pocket-flute, and never aspiring, even in a dream, to the dignity of the *bâton*"—an expression of humility in prose as graceful as anything that is to be found in his verse. If he is now cognizant of what is going on in his old home, it must be somewhat startling, after a cold oblivion of a quarter of a century, to be suddenly given a month's lease of a fame wider than he possessed while alive; to have this connected, too, with a political reception, and to be able at the same time to feel an absolute certainty that this brief flash of renown will be succeeded by another long if not perpetual period of obscurity. The occasion has brought out in strong relief the fact of the growth of this city, and its development from a local town—we had almost said village—into a real capital. Halleck was one of the poets of its early provincial period, and it is as difficult now to imagine a genuine enthusiasm over the literary performances of that day as it would be to imagine a political excitement over the deeds of "Clinton or John Targee." The erection of statues in the Park has gone to a length already, which is, to say the least, very great, and the principal objection that will occur to most people against the erection of the Halleck monument probably will be, that if poets of his calibre are to be admitted, the supply will be so great that it will soon be a question whether the Park was made for the statues or the public. But this is unfair. We take our revenge on Halleck for saying that all we would do was to "trade and vote" by forgetting who Halleck was, but there is no doubt

that he deserves at least a niche in our local temple of fame. He was not a great poet, but his "Marco Bozzaris" is a poem which stirs the blood to-day as it did when it was written, and contains several lines which are remembered and quoted by persons as ignorant of their origin as of that of common proverbs. Besides this, he wrote many pleasing *vers de société*, and in "Fanny" produced a poem abounding in neatly-turned satire.

—There is some monotony in praising each successive portion of a periodical as it appears with an absolutely equal cordiality; but the evenness of merit in *L'Art* makes this uniformity of commendation a duty. The eighth volume, which has just arrived, and is to be had in America of J. W. Bouton, contains some of the best etchings and most pregnant articles which have ever appeared in this most sumptuous of art-journals. The necrology of the twelvemonth affords occasion for some of the more interesting papers in its list of contents. That on Fromentin is embellished with a large and highly finished etching of his "Falcon hunt," by Monziès, but the article is comparatively colorless; not so that on the late painter Diaz, whose decision of character imprinted on almost every day he lived some trace of an extraordinary strength. Such was his graphic portrait of Couture—whom he saw exhibiting his fat figure in an "Almaviva" mantle—as "yonder poisonous mushroom"; and such was his declaration about Ingres: "If he were shut up in a tower, where he could not get at his engravings, he would stay there with his canvas empty, while I should come out from such a place with a picture." The occasional reliance of *L'Art* on illustrated sale catalogues, by the by, is exemplified in a somewhat mortifying way in the case of Diaz; having illustrated one number with tracings from his groups, prepared in a heavy, Philistine way, it is compelled to apologize on page 71, and make the posthumous Diaz catalogue its excuse. A notice of Wylie, the American genre-painter, who received the unprecedented honor of a second-class medal at the Salon of 1872, is given with that hospitable heartiness towards the art of other nations so peculiarly French. The works of Chiffart, who, it seems, suffers from a name especially vulgar in the ears of his countrymen, and who has, therefore, never attained success, are illustrated and cordially reviewed. There has never been any periodical news undertaking so splendidly embellished as *L'Art*, and we are glad to find that in the season of famine caused by an interregnum between two Salons its quality is not suffered to drop beneath its own exalted standard. The *Portfolio* for May has an etching after Stanfield, and Prof. Colvin's proofs (not too convincingly made out) of a partial reliance by Albert Dürer on the "Tarocchi playing-cards." An etching of a French sculptor's portrait is by Legros, who has the genius of "style."

—The most noteworthy article in the last *Popular Science Monthly* is that on "The Evolution of the Family," by Mr. Herbert Spencer. It is the first of two chapters which are to be appended to the first volume of his "Principles of Sociology," and combats the social theories, or, more particularly, the patriarchal system of Sir Henry S. Maine. An article extremely characteristic of the writer, and which brings together the names of two men who are probably regarded in popular estimation as birds of a feather, is that on Spinoza by M. Ernest Renan. It is from the *Contemporary Review*, and is the address delivered by its author at the unveiling of the monument to Spinoza at the Hague on the 21st of February. The moral characteristics of Spinoza are those most prominently brought forward, although his philosophical and theological views are by no means ignored. It is not as a philosopher, we believe, that Spinoza's influence is to be hereafter felt. The man who could write the sentence, "It is of the nature of the substance to develop itself necessarily by an infinity of infinite attributes infinitely modified," cannot affect the prevailing philosophy of the present day; and although his doctrines of the liberty of conscience and of the relations of government to the individual were very far indeed in advance of the accepted theories of two hundred years ago, they are not in advance of the best thought of to-day, and good statesmanship everywhere is endeavoring to apply them. His moral courage, dignified humility, and breadth of sympathy furnish sufficient justification for the perpetuation of his memory. We quote a passage which certainly does not accord with some popular conceptions of the "Jewish atheist"; it might, indeed, have come from the pulpit of some one of our city churches last Sunday: "To state my views openly, I tell you that it is not absolutely necessary to know Christ after the flesh; but it is otherwise when we speak of that Son of God—that is to say, that eternal wisdom of God which has manifested itself in all things, and more fully in the human soul, and, above all, in Jesus Christ."

—On the first of May appeared the fourth volume of Mr. Edward Arber's page 'Transcript of the Registers of the Company of Sta-

tioners of London between 1554-1640.' There remains in preparation a fifth volume of biographies, indices, etc., and one of the conditions of its appearance is that all surplus copies (*i.e.*, printed but not subscribed for) shall be immediately destroyed. The edition is limited to two hundred and thirty copies in all, thirty being on large paper; and the total number of subscriptions, including the editor's copy, is thus far but one hundred and forty, of which exactly one-seventh are from the United States. Omitting individual subscribers, we find that copies have been ordered by or for the Library of Congress, Astor Library, Long Island Historical Society, Historical Society of Pennsylvania, Mercantile Library of Philadelphia, Boston Athenæum and Public Library, Public Library of New Bedford, Mass., Peabody Institute of Baltimore, and the university libraries of Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and Pennsylvania. Not an individual or an institution west of the Alleghanies or south of Washington has bespoken so monumental a work as this—a fact for which it seems difficult to account, seeing that the total cost of the 'Transcript' is less than \$150, and that its value will surely and rapidly grow with time. There is no public and no private library of any pretensions that ought to be without the 'Transcript,' and yet Philadelphia (5), Boston and Cambridge (5), and New York and Brooklyn (4) absorb seven-tenths of the copies at present assigned to this country. There is even one subscriber in Longmeadow, Mass., but none in Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, or San Francisco. There is here certainly room for public spirit at a small sacrifice. To quote Mr. Arber's prospectus: "Of many books, still lost to us, these Registers are the *only* record. They are also, and ever will be, the foundation of English Bibliography, and, besides, are the chief authority, for their period, in the history of English Printing. . . . There is nothing like them anywhere extant in any foreign language." The period which they cover is, of course, the greatest in English literature.

—Under the direction of the English Master of the Rolls will shortly be published the second volume of the 'Thomas Saga Erkiþyskups,' an Icelandic life of Thomas à Becket, which supplies some of the missing portions of the well-known biography of the saint by Benedict of Peterborough. It will complete the work, and like the first volume, which appeared in 1875, will contain the Icelandic text and a translation and notes by Mr. Elrik Magnússon, one of the librarians of the University of Cambridge. Although styled a biography it possesses all the peculiarities of the ordinary saga, to which nothing in modern literature so nearly corresponds as the historical novel. The characteristics with which we are so familiar in Scott—the alliance of truth and fiction, the careful local coloring, the individuality and thorough humanity of the characters, the conversations clothed in the quaint dialect of a former period, the frequent descriptions of costumes and personal traits, the occasional employment of supernatural machinery, the introduction of many personages almost equally prominent (substituted by Scott for the one conventional hero of the old novel of sentiment), the slow development of the plot, followed ultimately by a more rapid progress and culmination, the thread of the narrative carried on through seeming digressions—all these are to be found in the sagas. Natives of Iceland who read the Waverley novels at once notice the resemblance, and are accustomed to characterize Scott as the modern sagaman. But neither Icelandic scholars nor English critics have ever ventured, it is believed, to suggest any direct connection between the Scandinavian narratives of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries and the tales of the great creator of the modern school of historical fiction. It is worthy of note, however, that Scott's study of the saga literature, which was more comprehensive than is generally supposed, immediately preceded the appearance of his long series of romances. His translation of the *Eyrbyggja* saga was finished in October, 1813; 'Waverley' was published in July, 1814. The initial chapters, it is said, had been sketched some years previously, but even if the author's acquaintance with the old works of the North did no more than revive a half-abandoned plan, the fact is assuredly an interesting one in literary history. Be this as it may, it is certain that the essential features of form and manner which make the saga what it is are more closely reproduced by the Scotchman than by the modern Scandinavians, like Tegnér and Oehlenschläger, who avowedly derive the subject-matter of their works from the rich storehouse of the old Northern literature. No one can form a very accurate idea of a saga from a perusal either of the former's 'Frithiofs Saga' or the latter's 'Hakon Jarl'; but he who has read 'Rob Roy' or 'Peveril of the Peak,' and has made due allowance for the difference in the periods which gave birth to the two classes of works, ought to have a very clear conception of those remarkable prose narratives which, to so large an extent, make up the ancient literature of Iceland.

JAMES'S 'AMERICAN.'*

THE American whose adventures are here recorded is named Christopher Newman. At the time the story opens he is thirty-five years old, having served in the war, from which he came out a brigadier general by brevet, and accumulated since a large fortune by dealing in leather, wash-tubs, and stocks. His instruction from books had been slight, for he tells us he celebrated his tenth birthday by leaving school; he had, however, seen many men and cities before the whim seized him of going to Europe to enjoy his fortune, not after the fashion of the majority of his fellow-countrymen, but quietly, rationally, with a vague notion of supplying the missing foundation-stones in his education. He meets an old friend named Tristram in Paris, who introduces him to his wife, and she, finding herself entrusted with a good-looking, rich bachelor, who, moreover, is not averse to matrimony, naturally turns to match-making, and looks about for a wife for him. The woman she has in view is a French lady of excellent family, who had early married a man a great many years older than herself and is now a widow. She and Mrs. Tristram had been schoolmates. Without much difficulty she manages to introduce Newman to her friend, Madame de Cintré, and the romance fairly begins. The action does not hurry on from this point, however, for Newman is first dismissed for the summer that he may take French lessons, visit picture-galleries, examine the architecture of churches, and in general rid himself of the dust of the prairie which might have made him too conspicuous for the houses of the French nobility. With the winter he returns to Paris, having carried with him throughout the summer a very distinct memory of Madame de Cintré's dark eyes. What follows next is very entertaining, as Mr. James gives the reader a most interesting study of the way the intricacies of a complex society pass unnoticed by our fellow-countryman, who suddenly finds himself in better company than he was ever in at any time of his life. The difficulties that would beset even the most successful stock-speculator from San Francisco in his attempts to enter the houses of the Legitimist nobility are ingeniously put out of the way by the proper exercise of the novelist's art, so that nothing seems more natural than that Newman should be stretching out his long legs in one of the most exclusive houses in Paris. His own position is made very clear. He had no diffidence, and his education had not encouraged in him the habit of cringing before the aristocracy, so that with his frankness and manliness he makes an attractive contrast to the artificial creatures he meets in this new world. For Valentin de Bellegarde he has that warm affection which a man has only for the favorite brother of the woman he is in love with; and Valentin, a capably-drawn young *gentilhomme*, consistent throughout, certainly deserved this affection. Newman does not disgrace himself in his new surroundings, except so far as sprawling one's legs in company is a disgrace; at times, to be sure, cold shivers must have run down the backs of his new acquaintances at his allusions to the past when he was struggling in business, but his self-possession keeps him from being uncomfortable, and he never finds it necessary to bolster up his courage by bragging about himself or his native land. He is conscious of his wealth and of its value, because he amassed it himself, but he is above all vulgar ostentation. Then, too, he is supremely good-natured, and he endures the scorn of the mother and other brother of Madame de Cintré, of Urbain de Bellegarde namely, with great composure; indeed, generally these cold-hearted aristocrats when they descend to trying to snub their visitor get, as the phrase is, as good as they give.

In spite of their noble prejudices they consent to receive Newman as a suitor for Mme. de Cintré's hand because he is wealthy and there is no very violent objection to be urged against him; but in their hearts that half of the family hate him. Even Valentin is startled when he first hears from Newman's lips of his audacious hopes and plans, but he consents not merely to refrain from throwing obstacles in his way, but even to do what he can in furtherance of his suit. As for Madame de Cintré, she finds herself for the first time in her life thrown with a man who is genuine, sincere, and as simple as a child, whose virtues stand out in sharp relief against the affectations and hollowness of the society in which she lives. Newman's quaint ways are to her the evidence of originality, and naturally she is not blind to the force of his affection for her. By a capital touch she is represented as very shy—she is overridden by her despotic mother and brother; but when the time comes she is bold enough in accepting Newman with all his imperfections on his head. Their love-making is for the most part discretely cool; even Urbain, the marquis, might have sat by without casting

too heavy a gloom upon Newman while he was wooing, and without receiving any great shock to his patrician susceptibilities. There is but one sure test, however, of the excellence of any method of courtship, and if it is applied here, it must be confessed that Newman's way was a wise one, for the woman he loved promised to marry him. So far everything had gone on as he wanted, but soon he comes on crags and sunken rocks in the shape of the perfidy of the mother and her favorite son. Newman is introduced to a number of the most aristocratic friends of the family at a ball given in honor of the engagement, when suddenly the firm ground gives way under his feet, and he is told by Madame de Cintré at his next visit that she has decided not to marry him. The reason of this suddenly altered determination is that her mother has asserted her authority, and expressly forbidden her taking that step. Her obedience to this command seems in no way impossible; we have already had plenty of proof of her great shyness, and it can be seen that with that quality and her detestation of a family quarrel, she felt her incompetence to keep a bold front against combatants as well trained as her own mother and brother, and that for the sake of peace she would consent to sacrifice even her own and her lover's happiness. She was a timid creature, and she was bullied into this renunciation of her hopes. So much is intelligible and consistent. But here comes the great disappointment of the story, which is Newman's conduct in this altered state of affairs.

It is very natural that novelists should grow tired of ending their stories with a fine wedding and the imaginative statement that the newly-married couple always lived happy afterwards. But it is also to be remembered that if readers ask that a love-story should end with a marriage or a definite statement of some satisfactory reason why the marriage did not occur, it is because they know that a real passion leads to marriage unless there is some insuperable obstacle in the way, and that this is a law which does not admit of exceptions. It may very well happen that a slight matter may turn off a half-hearted man who has deluded himself with an unfounded notion that he is in love, when he is only interested; but if he is ever in earnest he is earnest then unless he has deceived himself in some way. Now, it is impossible to suppose that Newman had not his whole heart in this matter. It was the one love of his life, and all the mothers and brothers in Christendom would have been no more guard for Madame de Cintré than half a dozen cobwebs. A man who has made his way so successfully in the world since he was ten years old is not one who can be rebuffed by his mistress's sense of duty to her family. He would know, and he would make it plain to her, that her duty lay elsewhere. She might not have been strong enough to take the responsibility of action upon herself; but he could have assumed it and have brought their troubles to a satisfactory end. This is what the reader feels. It is to be remembered, too, that Newman was no theorizer who formed his decisions first and then acted upon them; he was emphatically a man of action, who felt that he wanted something and at once put out his hand for it. He cares nothing for these enemies of his, but he lets the wave break over his head and thinks how badly he has been treated on account of his commercial pursuits. Even before he has lost all chance he gets into his hand a bit of paper, by means of which he might turn the tables on the Bellegardes, and possibly get their consent to the marriage, or, at any rate, inflict a lasting revenge upon them, and he goes to see an old lady, one of their intimate friends, who would take extreme pleasure in spreading scandal about them; but instead of taking his vengeance he lets the chance go by, and the plot of the Bellegardes is perfectly successful. There is no *mésalliance* in the family, Newman is shuffled out of the way, secret and all, as if the Bellegardes in their interview with him saw in him something the reader does not see, which told them that he would be a week-kneed adversary whom they could despise.

Now, either the reader has been all along mistaken about Newman's real feeling for Madame de Cintré, or this hero is totally unworthy of the sympathy that is surely given him. A man of his sort cannot sacrifice his life's happiness, and, what is more, that of the woman he loves, who had never known what happiness was, for a mere whim. It was very well for him to let the sixty thousand dollars go which he mentions early in the book, but there is no analogy between that renunciation and the final one, for he had plenty of money besides, whatever became of those thousands, while there was no woman who could replace Madame de Cintré. It is here that the element of passion is wanting, and it is not satisfactorily replaced by the drawing of Newman's extreme good-nature. Its absence is the more noticeable because in the account of Newman's wooing there is a beautiful passage, where Madame de Cintré accepts him, which promises real ardor in the energetic American.

But, apart from this, how much there is to admire in the novel! The

* 'The American.' By Henry James, jr. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1877.

different threads are managed with rare skill. The episodic story of Valentin and his doings is told most admirably, and it serves the purpose of bringing out more clearly the excellence of Newman's character. There is great completeness and symmetry in these chapters. But the best thing of all, in our opinion, is the delicacy with which Madame de Cintre is drawn, with her shyness and gracious delicacy. The success here, attained as it is by that apparent simplicity which is the height of art, gives the novel a place among the best modern studies of society, and makes it an honorable example of Mr. James's serious endeavor to attain excellence only by careful choice of methods.

An Anglo-Saxon Reader in Prose and Verse, with Grammatical Introduction, Notes, and Glossary. By Henry Sweet, M.A. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co.)—Mr. Henry Sweet stands at the head of the students of Anglo-Saxon in England. He is a scientific investigator, who has prepared himself by careful study of living speech to grapple with the problems presented by dead languages. He has studied English, German, and Scandinavian dialects in the mouths of the people; and his discussion of Danish pronunciation before the London Philological Society has been pronounced by Mr. Ellis to be "one of the acutest phonological investigations of recent times." Thus trained and equipped, he addressed himself to original work on the earliest remains of Anglo-Saxon. These were still in manuscript, and inaccessible to scholars in other countries. His edition of Alfred's version of the 'Cura Pastoralis' of Gregory introduced a new era in Anglo-Saxon studies. He has now prepared an Anglo-Saxon Reader, with a brief grammar, notes, and glossary, for use in English schools. It contains about 100 pages of grammar, 185 of extracts, and 18 of notes. The extracts begin with the account of the assassination of King Cynewulf found in the Chronicle under the date A.D. 755, and believed to have been written about that time, so that it is by far the oldest historical prose in any Teutonic language. Then follow prose extracts, mostly from the translations of Alfred and of Ælfric, or from the Chronicle, the last bearing the date of 1048; and then metrical extracts from Beowulf, Caedmon, and Cynewulf, with Judith and some gnomic verses; so that we have a fair representation of all the forms in which the classic West-Saxon has been preserved except legal documents, and scientific essays and formulae. Some of the extracts are here printed for the first time. The famous Orosius MS. of the age of Alfred, which Lord Tolleremache treasures up so carefully, and which scholars have been so long anxious to have printed, is in Mr. Sweet's hands, it seems, and he gives us three interesting extracts from it. The life of Oswald is given for the first time from the Cottonian MS., and specimens of Ælfric and Wulfstan are given from a new collation of the MSS. The texts are prepared with admirable accuracy and thoroughness. The editorial care extends to marking the quantity of every vowel; and, still further, Mr. Sweet here, for the first time, introduces two new letters, in effect *o* and *e* with a subscript, which indicate etymology in the first place, and then shades of pronunciation undistinguished in the manuscripts. He also carries out laws of printing double letters and of the use of aspirates, which require great labor as well as penetrating insight into the structure and history of the language.

Great pains have been bestowed on the glossary, mainly in the making of references by page and line to the places in which each word is to be found. The whole book is well labored, except perhaps the notes, which are of the briefest. It belongs throughout to a higher grade of scholarship than the manuals which have heretofore been used in England, and cannot fail to advance the scientific knowledge of the mother tongue. The little study done in England has been in manuals like Thorpe's 'Analecta,' Vernon's 'Anglo-Saxon Guide,' or Barnes's 'Delectus,' books which belong to an era little affected by the modern science of language, and meagre and lifeless at the best. They needed badly a new manual. Things are somewhat different in America. We have already four elementary books quite similar in general plan and contents to Mr. Sweet's, so far as the needs of beginners are concerned, and we want the old MSS. edited and printed. The neglect of the MSS. is the opprobrium of English scholarship; Anglo-Saxon studies are checked all over the world for want of them. Grein, whose edition of the Anglo-Saxon poetry accompanied by his great lexicon is the highest achievement yet in this field, and who is prepared by his labors in it to give the world a similar edition and lexicon of the prose, which would change the Anglo-Saxon from the least known to the best known of the early Teutonic languages, is stopped for want of reliable editions. Other men may make good elementary class-books, but who can edit the MSS. of Alfred like Mr. Sweet? We are glad to get anything which he will give us; but we remember, with a certain regret, that the labor spent on this

Reader would have gone far towards giving us editions of all the earliest MSS.

It should be said, further, that this book does not seem to be in all respects skilfully adapted to the needs of beginners. It is over-labored on the phonetic side, and too sparing of exposition and explanation of other matters. It is only in phonology that Mr. Sweet enters into details of comparative philology. In general, he considers comparison with other allied languages positively injurious to the student who is beginning this study, and announces it as a merit that he has avoided all reference to "a-stems," etc. In this he is surely mistaken, at least in its application to those who study Anglo-Saxon in America. They are almost all in our colleges or high schools, and know a little German and Latin, and are used to noticing the derivation of words. Pointing out resemblances between Anglo-Saxon words and idioms and those they know in these kindred languages heightens their interest, aids their memory, quickens their reason, and helps them every way. It may not be well to make a great talk of a-stems; but it is a serious defect in Mr. Sweet's grammar that he does not arrange his declensions steadily by stems, as good modern grammars do in all Indo-European languages, but by a mixed method of genders. The vocabulary, which is so labored in its references, is without comparative etymology, or inflection forms, or particular statements of the conjugation or declension of each word, such as a beginner needs. Moreover, it is not arranged in common alphabetical order, and the words are often spelled differently from the spelling which appears in the text, so that a beginner may worry without end. The selections, which are chosen as specimens of the language, are many of them hard to understand, and Mr. Sweet gives no elementary help. Beginners might as well start Greek without notes in Thucydides and Pindar as Anglo-Saxon without notes in Cynewulf and Beowulf. It will be better to take up Sweet after having gone through one of our American Readers.

Electricity and the Electric Telegraph. By George B. Prescott. 8vo, pp. 978. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1877.)—Mr. Prescott calls his book 'Electricity and the Electric Telegraph.' He would have made a more favorable impression on many of his readers had he restricted himself to the subject of the telegraph. The writing of a book on electricity—especially an elementary one—should only be undertaken by one who is thoroughly conversant with his subject; which again is the same thing as saying that the author should be well versed in all branches of physics. But Mr. Prescott shows his want of familiarity with the higher order of general physics, and does not seem at home in the theoretic treatment of his special subject. Like most of the "electricians" of this country who have taken to the pen, he makes sad confusion of the terms *tension*, *potential*, and *electromotive force*. He appears to use them—especially tension and potential—as exactly synonymous; but they are by no means so used by the best modern authorities. Mr. Prescott says (p. 113), "a tension or potential which necessarily increases or decreases according to the electric density." Yet his Fig. 17 is an equipotential surface. In one or two places he uses potential and electromotive force as synonymous. This confusion of terms should be carefully avoided in an elementary work, for it prevents the formation of clear and definite ideas. Looseness of expression is characteristic of this portion of the book. Such phraseology as "desire of the two electricities to unite again," "creation of electricity," and so on, is entirely out of place in a work proposing to serve as an introduction to the science. Though Mr. Prescott says in his preface that every available source of information has been resorted to, and thus makes a general acknowledgment to his instructors, yet we think he is hardly justified in copying half a page *verbatim* without even putting it in quotation marks. Jenkin's 'Electricity and Magnetism' has been of great service to him in the preparation of the book, and we are of the opinion that he would have made a very slight return indeed for this aid if he had credited Prof. Jenkin at such places as p. 44 and elsewhere. The arrangement of the book is faulty; as an example, the terms potential, ohm, volt, etc., are used many times before they are defined. Taking it as a whole, the theoretical portion of the work is neither a model of literary style nor an example of the clear and concise presentation of facts and principles.

The chapters relating to practical telegraphy are, as one would expect from the electrician of the Western Union Telegraph Company, very full and complete, though several instruments that should have had a place in the work are omitted. We may suggest the insertion of Edison's and Smith's stock-printer; the Edison electromotograph; a diagram of Sawyer's autographic instrument. On the whole, it does not seem that Mr. Edison has had given him the credit he deserves. These points, however, do not interfere greatly with the value of the book, and the full treatment of the

more recent improvements in the American telegraphic system alone should secure for it an extensive sale. Indeed, no one at all interested in the practical applications of electricity in general, or in telegraphy in particular, can consider his library complete without Mr. Prescott's work.

*. Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Auerbach (B.), Aloys	(Henry Holt & Co.) \$ 25
Alger (Rev. W. R.), Life of Edwin Forrest, 2 vols.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 3 50
All Wrong	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 00
Bacon (Rev. L. W.), Church Papers	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Baker (Lt.-Col. J.), Turkey	(Henry Holt & Co.) 4 00
Baron (Dr. J.), Angriffe auf das Erioch, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt) 1 50
Blochwitz (Dr. J.), Brief History of Turkey	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 2 50
Breselani (Rev. Fr. A.), Edmondo: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 00
Brief Honors: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 00
Butterfield (C. W.), The Washington-Crawford Letters	(Robert Clarke & Co.) 1 50
Butt (G. M.), Eugenie	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Burroughs (J.), Birds and Poets, with other Papers	(Hurd & Houghton) 2 50
Campbell (Lord G.), Log-Letters from the Challenger	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50
Chadbourne (Rev. P. A.), The Hope of the Righteous	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 50
Cushing's Manual	(Thompson, Brown & Co.) 2 50
Corkran (Alice), Bessie Lang	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Dot and Dime	(A. K. Loring) 50
Earle (J.), Beginner in Anglo-Saxon	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Erskine (T.), Letters, Edited by Wm. Hanna	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 50

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The *N. Y. Evening Post* says: "His work, like Mr. Wallace's, is in many parts a revelation, as it has had no predecessor which was so founded upon personal observation, and at the same time so full of that sort of detailed information about the habits, the customs, the character, and the life of the people who form its subject which constitutes the best possible explanation of history and current events. . . . Invaluable to the student, profound or superficial, of Turkish affairs."

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Schools.

Continued from page iv.

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